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Citation: Mehallegue, Noureddine, Bouridane, Ahmed and Garcia, Emi (2008) Efficient path key establishment for wireless sensor networks. EURASIP Journal on Wireless Communications and Networking. p. 9. ISSN 1687-1472

Published by: Springer

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2008/456703> <<http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2008/456703>>

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## Research Article

# Efficient Path Key Establishment for Wireless Sensor Networks

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Received 13 June 2007; Revised 30 November 2007; Accepted 11 February 2008

Recommended by Athina Petropulu

Key predistribution schemes have been proposed as means to overcome wireless sensor network constraints such as limited communication and processing power. Two sensor nodes can establish a secure link with some probability based on the information stored in their memories, though it is not always possible that two sensor nodes may set up a secure link. In this paper, we propose a new approach that elects trusted common nodes called "Proxies" which reside on an existing secure path linking two sensor nodes. These sensor nodes are used to send the generated key which will be divided into parts (nuggets) according to the number of elected proxies. Our approach has been assessed against previously developed algorithms, and the results show that our algorithm discovers proxies more quickly which are closer to both end nodes, thus producing shorter path lengths. We have also assessed the impact of our algorithm on the average time to establish a secure link when the transmitter and receiver of the sensor nodes are "ON." The results show the superiority of our algorithm in this regard. Overall, the proposed algorithm is well suited for wireless sensor networks.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Wireless sensor networks (WSNs) have many applications in, for example, domestic, medical, and military settings [1]. Security plays a vital role: on the one hand, data must be protected using encryption algorithms; on the other hand, the network itself must be protected from intruders and malicious attacks. At the same time, it must be ensured that proper discovery and authentication procedures are in place in order to admit only legitimate nodes to the network.

WSNs are limited in their energy, computation, and communication capabilities. Because of these constraints, current security mechanisms are inadequate for WSNs. These extra constraints pose new research challenges with regard to key establishment, secrecy and authentication, privacy, robustness to denial-of-service attacks, secure routing, and node capture [2].

Recently, researchers have developed random key predistribution protocols in which a large pool of symmetric keys is chosen and a random subset of the pool is distributed to each sensor node. Eschenauer and Gligor [3] have proposed a random key predistribution scheme which operates as follows. Before the deployment process, each sensor node

receives a random subset of keys from a large key pool. To agree on a key for communication, two nodes find one common key within their subsets for use as their shared secret key for protecting their communication. The Eschenauer-Gligor scheme has been progressively improved by Chan et al. [4], Du et al. [5], and Liu et al. [6]. The link key in [4] is set as a hash of all common keys between two nodes. Liu et al. have used a polynomial pool instead of a key pool as proposed in [4]. Du et al. proposed the DDHV (Du, Deng, Han, and Varshney) scheme. The DDHV scheme [5] is based on a multiple key space scheme generated from Blom's [7]  $\lambda$ -secure symmetric key generation system which is randomly assigned to each sensor node in the network. In the DDHV scheme, two nodes agree upon to calculate a unique pairwise key if and only if both nodes share a common key space. Let  $P_{\text{actual}}$  define the probability that two sensor nodes sharing a common key space could communicate and let the total number of key spaces in the network be  $\omega$ . Each sensor node carries  $\tau$  key spaces. Thus, the probability of sharing a single key space between two sensor nodes is given by [5]

$$P_{\text{actual}} = 1 - \frac{((\omega - \tau)!)^2}{(\omega - 2\tau) \cdot \omega!}. \quad (1)$$

The DDHV scheme has been improved in [8] where the key distribution proposed makes use of coordinator sensor nodes elected on a cyclical basis, producing an increased number of nodes vulnerable to capture by an adversary.

In order that any two sensor nodes may communicate securely, they have to share a secret. This can be a common key as described in [3] or a common key space as described in [5]. Thus, secure communications in WSNs depend on the probability that every pair of sensor nodes shares a secret. When two sensor nodes share a common secret, they can secure their communications. There is another scenario referred to as “path key establishment” whereby two sensor nodes do not share a secret when setting up a secure link. In this paper, a new algorithm is proposed for path key establishment.

The paper is structured as follows. After an overview describing related work in Section 2, Section 3 sets out the details of the proposed Algorithm. In Section 4, we conjure the performance of our algorithm compared with that of [9]. Conclusions are drawn in Section 5.

## 2. RELATED WORK

Due to memory constraints for WSNs [1], existing key predistribution schemes for WSNs do not guarantee that any two sensor nodes could share a common key with a 100% probability (see (1)). In large WSNs, it will not be feasible for a sensor node memory to store  $(n - 1)$  keys to secure communication with all the sensor nodes in the network. They have to rely on their trusted neighbours to find a secure path to exchange a new key for their future communications. This process is referred to as “path key establishment” in the literature.

Anderson et al. [10] did not consider the path key establishment problem. Instead, they focused on strengthening an existing secure path. They proposed a multipath key reinforcement method to strengthen the security of an established link key by establishing the link key through multiple paths. It aims to add extra security for all communications. However, it does not address the “path key establishment problem” in which two neighbouring nodes do not share a secret thereby establishing a secure link.

Liu et al. [6] considered a particular case of the path key establishment problem in which two sensor nodes do not share a secret in order to set up a secure link. The two sensor nodes need to initiate a path key establishment phase. The source node tries to find another node that can help it set up a pairwise key with the destination node. The source node broadcasts two lists of polynomial identifiers referred to as IDs. One list comprises the source node polynomial IDs and the second comprises the destination node polynomial IDs. The two lists are available at both the source and the destination nodes after the polynomial share discovery. If one of the nodes receiving this request is able to establish direct keys with both the source and the destination nodes (i.e., this node is an intermediate node), it replies with a message containing two encrypted copies of a randomly generated key: one is encrypted by the direct key with the source node, and the other is encrypted by the

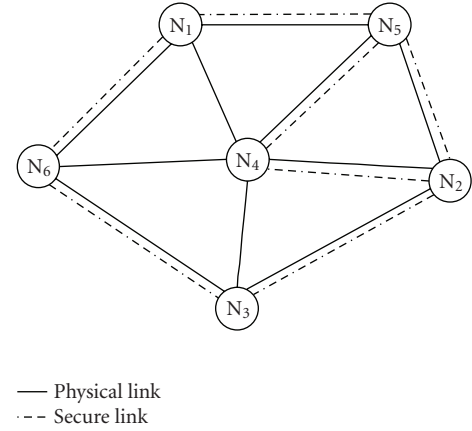


FIGURE 1: Path key establishment problem.

direct key with the destination node. Both the source and the destination nodes can then obtain the new pairwise key from this message. If no such intermediate node exists, Liu et al. did not extend the search to other sensor nodes to solve the path key establishment problem. In [3], intermediate nodes are selected for setting up path keys with nodes discovering paths to other nodes using locally broadcast messages. Path key establishment, as proposed in [11, 12], is based on the node’s identifier so that nodes can unilaterally select the intermediaries used to set up path keys. This eliminates the communication cost of searching for suitable intermediate nodes.

To the best of our knowledge, the best analysis of the path key establishment problem is provided in [9] where the authors give an analysis on the number of hops needed to select intermediate nodes.

To explain in detail the path key establishment problem, we illustrate using a small network having six sensor nodes as shown in Figure 1. Solid and dashed lines are used to represent physical and secure links, respectively. A secure link exists if there is a shared secret between both end nodes. For example, there is a secure link between node  $N_6$  and node  $N_1$ , since they share a common key. On the other hand, node  $N_6$  and node  $N_4$  have only a physical link since they do not share a key. The following question arises: how could  $N_6$  and  $N_4$  communicate?

A first solution is as follows: one node generates a random key which can then be transmitted via a secure path ( $N_6$ - $N_1$ - $N_5$ - $N_4$ ). The risk is that, if one node of this path is captured, the key will be revealed. Thus, all communications between the two nodes remain insecure. It has been proposed in [9] to use multiple paths to send the generated key. The new key will be divided according to the number of secure paths between the two end sensor nodes. For example, suppose there exist two secured paths between node  $N_6$  and node  $N_4$ . The generated key will be divided into two parts (nuggets). One part will be sent on the first path ( $N_1$ - $N_5$ ), the other part will be sent via the second path ( $N_3$ - $N_2$ ). This division obviously depends on the number of secure paths that exist between them. The greater the number of paths, the higher the chances of establishing a secure link. Therefore,

an efficient algorithm for path key establishment problem has to be employed taking into account the nature of WSNs such as memory size and battery lifetime. Node Disjoint Routing Protocol (NDRP), such as that described in [13], can be used to find disjoint paths. Our work concentrates, not on building node disjoint paths, but on how to elect proxies. The proposed algorithm does not depend on a specific NDRP algorithm.

Two methods have been proposed in [9] for the path key establishment process. We use them as benchmarks for assessing the performance of our proposed algorithm. The algorithms in [9] are similar to the idea proposed by Liu et al. in [6]. However, the new key is generated by one of the two end nodes; while in [6], it is generated by a node which shares a secret with both end nodes. In addition, these algorithms use more than a single common node to send the new key thereby giving added protection to the generated key.

### 2.1. Algorithm 1 (ALG1)

The basic steps of ALG1 to discover  $k$  proxies can be described as follows [9].

- (i) Node  $N_1$  and node  $N_2$  are two sensor nodes wishing to set up a path to secure their communications.
- (ii) Node  $N_1$  randomly selects  $k$  neighbours (or  $(k - 1)$  depending on whether or not node  $N_1$  acts as its own proxy for one key part or key nugget) and sends out request for proxy packets containing key IDs for both nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . Each recipient examines the key identifiers (key IDs) list to determine if it shares keys with both nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ .
  - (a) If it does, it responds to node  $N_1$  with the key ID that is chosen to communicate with node  $N_1$ .
  - (b) If it does not, or if it has received the same request from node  $N_1$ , it forwards this request to a random neighbour, other than the sender.

### 2.2. Algorithm 2 (ALG2)

- (i) Node  $N_1$  creates a request packet and sets its time-to-live (TTL) field to time interval  $t$  before locally flooding the packet into the network. The value of  $t$  may be set to reflect the density of the node within the neighborhood. For dense networks, the value of  $t$  should be small; while for sparse networks, a large value of  $t$  may be required.
- (ii) Nodes receiving a request packet respond with positive acknowledgment only if they share a key with node  $N_1$  and a key with node  $N_2$ .
- (iii) Upon receiving  $k$  positive acknowledgment, node  $N_1$  selects the senders of these acknowledgments as  $k$  proxies.

Both ALG1 and ALG2 include the case where nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  can act as their own proxies. The proxy process discovery starts by looking for proxies either from node  $N_1$  or node  $N_2$ . When a sensor node is elected as a proxy, the authors in [9] do not assess the real length of the path between node  $N_1$  and

node  $N_2$ . For example, if this proxy is  $l_1$  hops away from node  $N_1$  and  $l_2$  hops away from node  $N_2$ , then the real path will be of length  $(l_1 + l_2)$ . However, if node  $N_1$  finds a proxy, which is  $l_1$  hops away, it is possible that this proxy shares a key with node  $N_1$  and node  $N_2$ , but a path between this proxy and node  $N_2$  may not exist or be too far away.

In this paper, we propose a novel approach that elects intermediate sensor nodes as proxies with a guaranteed short path between the two end nodes.

## 3. PROPOSED ALGORITHM

The following assumptions are made in our algorithm (ALG3) and its security analysis.

- (1) Before the deployment phase, which is conducted offline,
  - (a) each sensor node has a unique node identifier in the network (node ID);
  - (b) each sensor node stores a list of keys or the information necessary to set up a secure link (DDHV scheme).
- (2) After sensor deployment, the following occur.
  - (a) The key discovery phase takes place where each node broadcasts its key IDs list. Therefore, each node sends one message, and receives another one from each node within its radio range. Secure links are then set up at the end of the key discovery phase.
  - (b) We assume that each sensor node has the sensor node ID list of its first neighbours which have a secure link with them (i.e., first neighbours). The first neighbours of  $N_i$  are defined as those sensor nodes that are one hop away from a sensor node  $N_i$  and share a secret with node  $N_i$ . Thus, all communications between node  $N_i$  and its adjacent neighbours are secure.

Let  $TIER(N_i, j)$  denote the neighbours that are  $j$  hops away from the node  $N_i$ . Figure 2 illustrates the action of ALG3 where nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are two sensor nodes which are on the radio range of each other. If nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  wish to establish a secure link, they exchange their key IDs' list. If they share a secret, they can set up a secure link.

Assume that nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  do not share a secret. We will show how ALG3 resolves the "Path Key Establishment Problem."

A physical link exists between nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , but a secure path has yet to be established. ALG3 is initiated after it is determined that no common secret exists between nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . Let  $Prx$  denote the number of proxies required to send the secret. Recall that node  $N_1$  already knows the ID list for its first neighbours (assumption 2(b)). Then, node  $N_1$  requests the sensor node ID list of node  $N_2$ 's first neighbours (those neighbours which are one hop away) or node  $N_2$ 's Tier 1 neighbours denoted by  $TIER(N_2, 1)$ . Then,  $N_1$  starts comparing with its first neighbour sensor node ID list, denoted as  $TIER(N_1, 1)$  (see CMP1 of Figure 2).

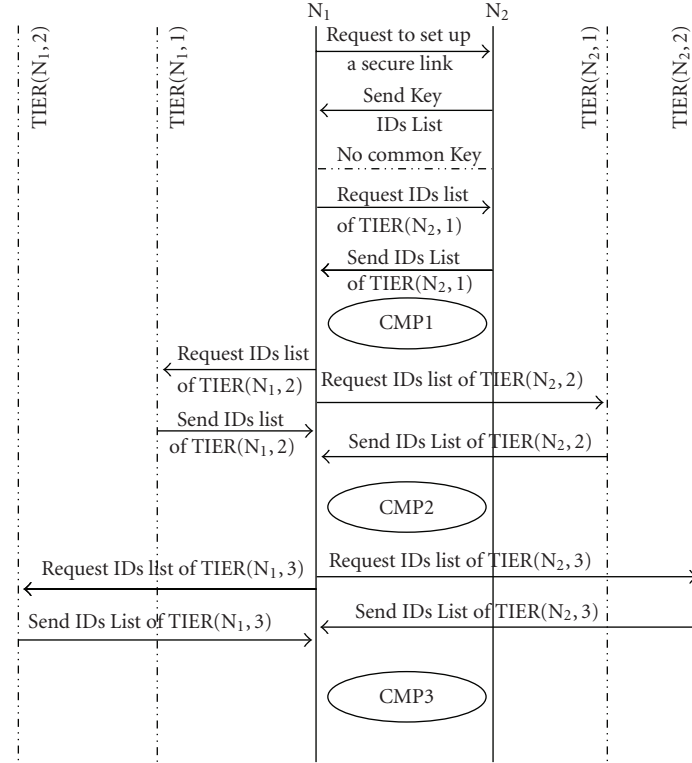


FIGURE 2: Proxy process discovery.

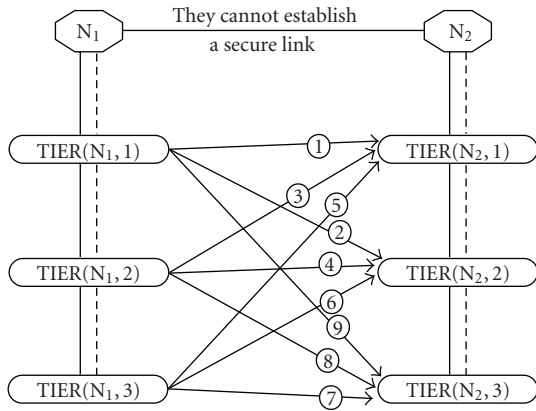


FIGURE 3: Chronological sequence comparison for proxy process discovery.

CMP1 corresponds to sequence 1 in Figure 3. If a common node ID is found, it will be elected as a proxy which is one hop away from both end sensor nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  (see Figure 4(a)).

If the number of proxies found after CMP1 is smaller than  $Prx$ , node  $N_1$  continues searching for new proxies by requesting the sensor node ID lists of its second neighbours and node  $N_2$ 's second neighbours by sending a request to its first neighbours  $TIER(N_1, 1)$  and  $TIER(N_2, 1)$ , respectively.

$TIER(N_1, 1)$  replies by sending the sensor node ID list of its first neighbours denoted by  $TIER(N_1, 2)$  (node

$N_1$ 's second neighbours). In addition,  $TIER(N_2, 1)$  replies by sending the sensor node ID list of its first neighbours denoted by  $TIER(N_2, 2)$  (node  $N_2$ 's second neighbours).

After receiving the required sensor node ID lists, node  $N_1$  starts searching for new proxies by comparing at CMP2 the sensor node ID list from its first and second neighbours with node  $N_2$ 's first and second neighbours (CMP2: see Figure 2). CMP2 corresponds to sequences 2, 3, and 4 in Figure 3. The chronological order of comparisons is depicted in Figure 3. If new proxies are found, the length of the path will be as follows (see Figure 4(b)):

- (i) two, if the second neighbour of node  $N_1$  is the first neighbour of node  $N_2$  or if the first neighbour of node  $N_1$  is the second neighbour of node  $N_2$ ;
- (ii) three, if they both have a common second neighbour ID.

If the required number of proxies found is smaller than  $Prx$ , node  $N_1$  requests its third neighbour sensor node ID list and node  $N_2$ 's third neighbours' sensor node ID list by sending requests to  $TIER(N_1, 2)$  and  $TIER(N_2, 2)$ , respectively.  $TIER(N_1, 2)$  replies by sending the sensor node ID list of its first neighbours denoted by  $TIER(N_1, 3)$  (node  $N_1$ 's third neighbours) while  $TIER(N_2, 2)$  replies by sending the sensor node ID list of its first neighbours denoted by  $TIER(N_2, 3)$  (node  $N_2$ 's third neighbours).

After receiving the sensor node ID list requested, node  $N_1$  starts searching for new proxies by making comparisons at



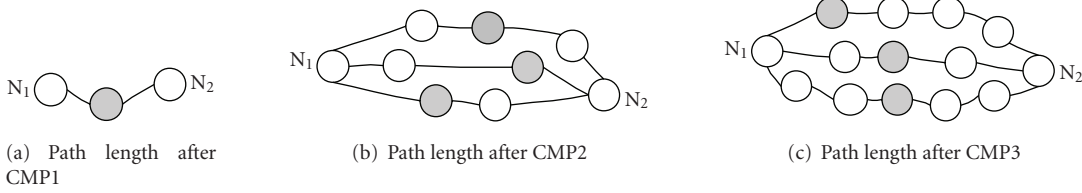


FIGURE 4: Path length after CMP1, CMP2, and CMP3.

CMP3 (see Figure 2). CMP3 corresponds to sequences 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 in Figure 3. The chronological order of comparison follows the sequence depicted in Figure 3. If proxies are found, the length of the path will be three, four, or five (see Figure 4(c)).

#### 4. ANALYSIS

To assess the performance of our proposed algorithm, the same experiment as described in [9, 14] with 1000 sensor nodes randomly distributed over a  $100 \times 100$  square area was carried out. Simulations were run using Matlab [15]. Three different scenarios were simulated in which the radio range  $R$  was set to 6, 8, and 12 in order to generate networks with different densities. In Figure 5, when  $R = 6$ , the sensor node highlighted in black can attempt to establish a secure link with up to six sensor nodes. When  $R = 8$  and  $R = 12$ , the number of sensor nodes that can be targeted to establish secure links with increases.

In these experiments, a path key is fragmented into 5 parts (nuggets). Thus, five proxies are required to communicate the path key between two end nodes so that 100 pairs of end nodes were chosen randomly in our simulations. The performance of ALG3 was compared with both ALG1 and ALG2 using different key distribution scenarios.

##### 4.1. Average number of hops to find a proxy

Figures 6 and 7 show the average number of hops to determine one proxy in the network for two different scenarios exhibiting low and high connectivity.

Figure 6 depicts the average number of hops to find one proxy in a network with a 30% probability that any two nodes share a secret. When  $R = 6$  (i.e., for a sparse network), a proxy can be found after more than 9 hops and 3 hops using ALG1 and ALG2, respectively. However, using ALG3, a proxy resides fewer than two hops away. In [9], the authors did not assess the path length  $l$  between nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . For example, using ALG1, a proxy resides more than 9 hops away from node  $N_1$  for the case when  $R = 6$ . For this case, the path length between node  $N_1$  and node  $N_2$  is at least 10 hops if the elected proxy is a first neighbour of node  $N_2$ . However, this does not always happen. Using ALG2, the path length  $l$  has 4 hops. In our simulations, a proxy is found almost after exchanging the first, second, and third neighbours' sensor node ID list and resides one or two hops away from node

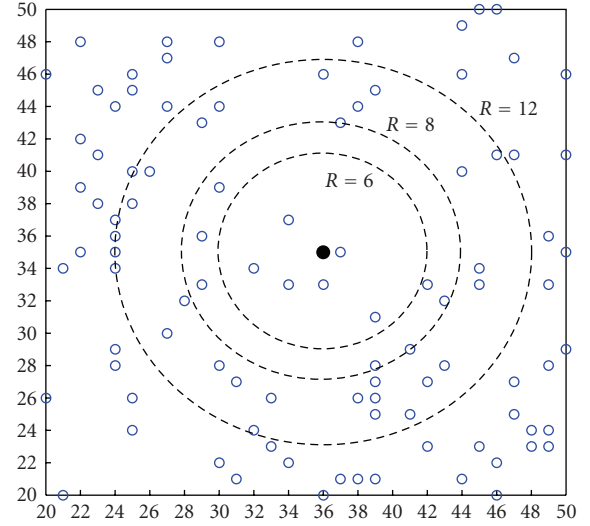


FIGURE 5: Varying radio range and connectivity.

$N_1$  such that the path length is  $2 \leq l \leq 4$  (see Figure 4). For a medium dense network ( $R = 8$ ), a proxy is 8 hops and 2 hops away when using ALG1 and ALG2, respectively. When  $R = 12$  (i.e., for a dense network), one still needs more than 8 hops and 2 hops using ALG1 and ALG2, respectively. In this case, ALG3 outperforms both ALG1 and ALG2 since a proxy resides less than 2 hops away from node  $N_1$  (see Figure 6).

Another feature of ALG3 is that it is independent of the network density making it more appropriate for WSNs. Figure 7 shows the average number of hops to locate one proxy for another scenario where the probability that any two sensor nodes are able to communicate is 60%. It can be observed from Figures 6 and 7 that the number of hops to determine one proxy in the case when  $R = 6$  falls from 9 to 3 for ALG1 and from 3 to 2 for ALG2 when the probability that any two sensor nodes are able to communicate is varied from 30% to 60%. Using ALG3, the average number of hops to find one proxy is almost "1." This means that there is a higher chance of finding a proxy residing one hop away from nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  compared to the scenario in Figure 6. Using ALG3, the degree of connectivity is not so influential as regards the number of hops needed to find a proxy as in the case of ALG1 and ALG2. This is an advantage in the case when the connectivity of the network is reduced due to power or node failures.

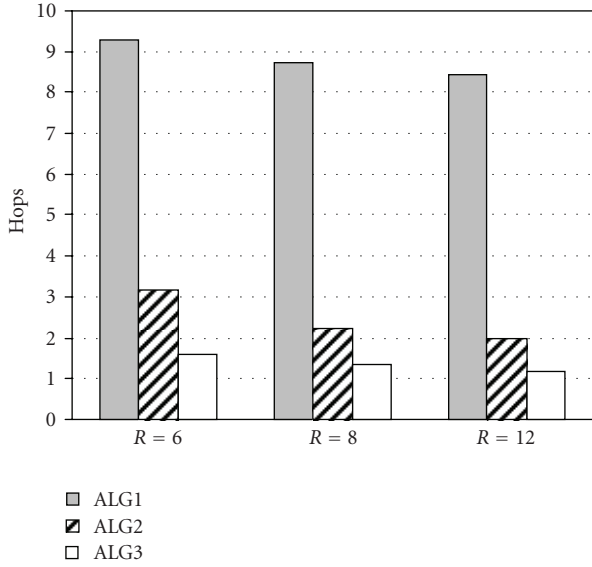


FIGURE 6: Average number of hops to get one proxy for a scenario with low connectivity ( $\tau = 4$ ;  $\omega = 50$ ;  $P_{\text{actual}} = 30\%$ ).

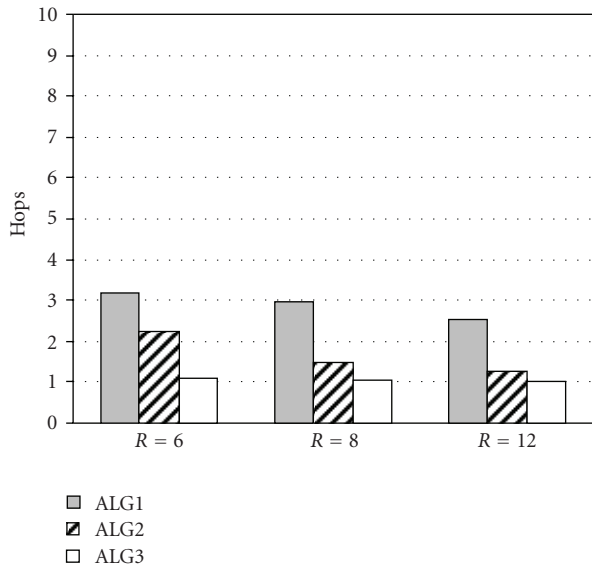


FIGURE 7: Average number of hops to get one proxy for a scenario with high connectivity ( $\tau = 6$ ;  $\omega = 50$ ;  $P_{\text{actual}} = 60\%$ ).

#### 4.2. Average time to find one proxy

To further demonstrate the superiority of the performance of ALG3, we have recorded the average time necessary to establish a secure link between two sensor nodes which does not share a secure one. The time computed is the interval between the request to set up a secure link and its final establishment (see Figure 2). In order to simulate a real scenario, the IEEE 802.15.4 standard is implemented to assess our proposed algorithm. The frame sequence in 802.15.4 is depicted in Figure 8(a). One frame duration includes the back-off period, the frame to be transmitted, turn-around time, acknowledgment and the interframe space (IFS). It

has to be noticed that the long frames are followed by a long IFS (LIFS) and short frames by a short IFS (SIFS). More information on the 802.15.4 can be found in [16]. The data frame (Figure 8(b)) structure and the medium access control (MAC) command frame (Figure 8(c)) of 802.15.4 [16] protocol are used to send the sensor node ID list and request the establishment of a secure link, respectively.

The following assumptions are considered while recording the average time to determine a proxy.

- (i) There are no losses due to collisions; no packets are lost due to buffer overflow at either sender or receiver side. The bit error rate is zero. Therefore, a perfect channel is considered in this study.
- (ii) The unslotted version of the 802.15.4 protocol in the 2.4 GHz band is implemented which provides the highest data rate (250 Kb/s).
- (iii) The short addressing mode is used.
- (iv) Acknowledgment packets are omitted.
- (v) The number of back-off slots is a random number uniformly distributed in the interval  $[0, 2^{\text{BE}} - 1]$ , BE is the back-off exponent which has the minimum value of 3. As a perfect channel is considered with a BER = 0, the number of back-off slots can be represented as the mean of the interval:  $[(2^3 - 1)/2] = 3.5$ . The time for a back-off slot is  $320 \mu\text{s}$ .
- (vi) SIFS is used when the MAC protocol data unit (MPDU) is smaller than 18 bytes ( $\text{SIFS} = 192 \mu\text{s}$ ). Otherwise, LIFS is used ( $\text{LIFS} = 640 \mu\text{s}$ ).

The time computed includes the passive listening of all the nodes involved in the proxy searching process. When the probability of sharing a secret is 30%, each sensor node carries 20 keys randomly from a key pool of 1000. The key ID identifiers require 10 bits to represent them in a binary format. The Data payload for the request packet size is 15 bytes. Therefore, each request packet transmitted is followed by a SIFS ( $\text{MPDU} < 18$  bytes). The data packet size to send the key ID list is 59 bytes and 79 bytes when  $P_{\text{actual}} = 30\%$  and  $P_{\text{actual}} = 60\%$ , respectively. In both scenarios, each data packet transmitted is followed by a LIFS ( $\text{MPDU} > 18$  bytes). The request packet size is 21 bytes. Both ALG1 and ALG2 compare the key ID lists to elect a proxy (Section 2) whereas ALG3 compares the sensor node ID lists (common trusted neighbours). When, the probability that two sensor nodes are able to communicate is set to 30%, each sensor node carries 20 keys. Thus, 20 comparisons are required each time. Furthermore, the key IDs of both end nodes need to be transmitted to each sensor node in order for it to be elected as a proxy. This means higher-power consumption.

Figure 9 clearly shows that the average active time to transmit the necessary information to find one proxy using ALG1 and ALG2 is much higher than ALG3 for a scenario when  $P_{\text{actual}} = 30\%$  with a data rate of 250 Kb/s. When  $R = 6$ , ALG1 and ALG2 require 527.2 ms and 216.4 ms, respectively, to find one proxy whereas ALG3 requires only 61.85 ms. For a medium dense network ( $R = 8$ ), ALG3 outperforms both

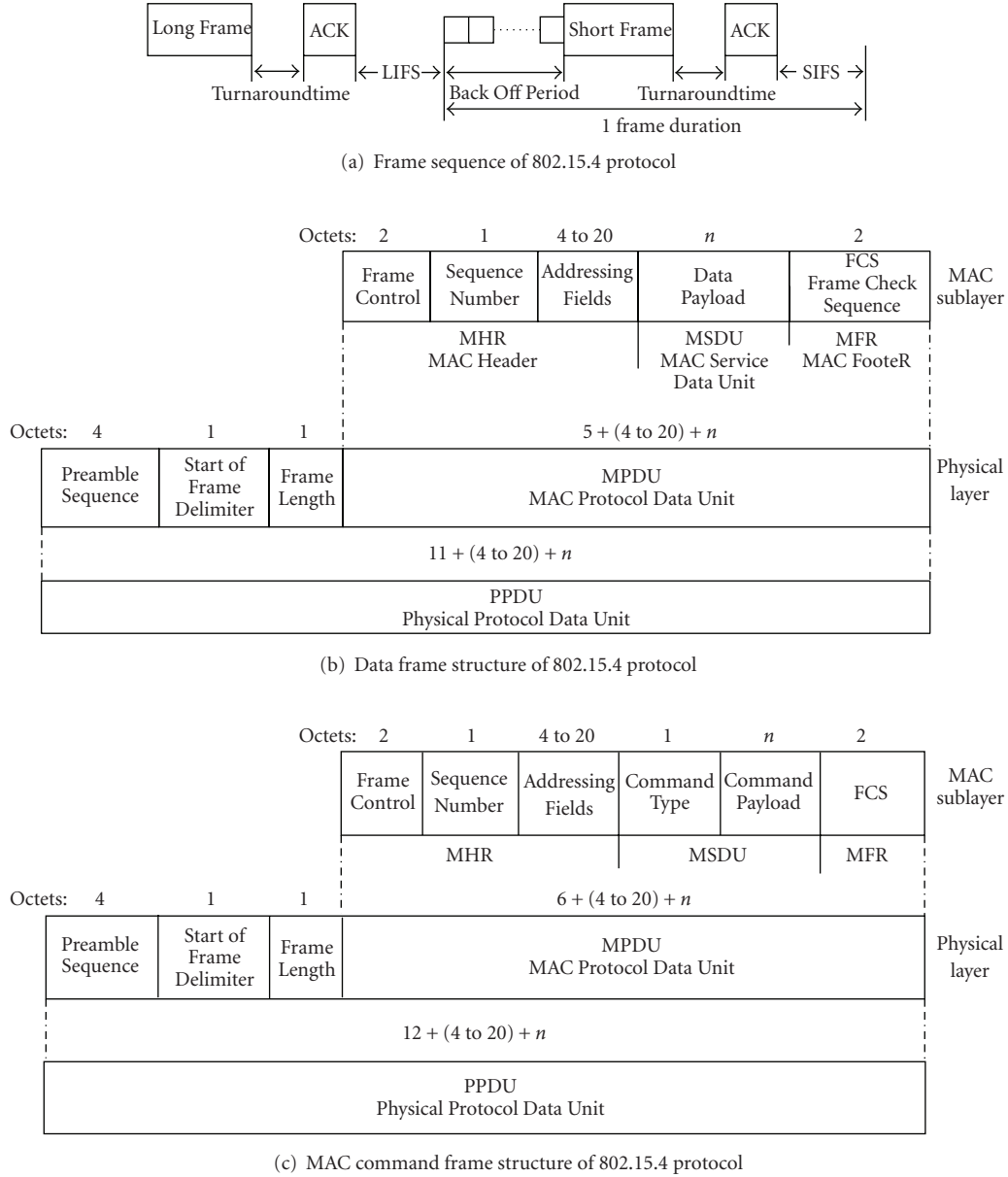


FIGURE 8: IEEE 802.15.4 frame sequence, data, and command frame structure.

ALG1 and ALG2 (see Figure 9:  $R = 8$ ). When  $R = 12$  (i.e., for a dense network), ALG3 requires less time than the others to find one proxy (see Figure 9:  $R = 12$ ).

Figure 10 shows another scenario for the case when the probability of any two sensor nodes being able to communicate is set to 60%. In this scenario, each sensor node carries 30 keys. Thus, 30 comparisons have to be made each time. When  $R = 6$  (for a sparse network), Figure 10 shows that the average times to find one proxy using ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 are 80.42 ms; 118.73 ms, and 33.39 ms, respectively. It can also be seen that, for a medium dense network ( $R = 8$ ), ALG3 outperforms both ALG1 and ALG2. Finally, for a dense network ( $R = 12$ ), ALG3 still performs better than both ALG1 and ALG2. Thus, ALG3 outperforms both ALG1 and ALG2 across the full range of network types.

### 4.3. Average time to find five proxies

Simulations to find five proxies have been made. The average active times to determine the five proxies using ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 have been recorded. Figures 11 and 12 clearly show that ALG3 outperforms both ALG1 and ALG2.

Figure 11 depicts the average time to determine the five proxies for a network with a low connectivity (30%). For a sparse network ( $R = 6$ ), ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 require 2635.9 ms, 1082.1 ms, and 181.95 ms, respectively, to find five proxies. For  $R = 8$ , the average times to determine five proxies using ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 are 2344.9 ms, 773.3 ms, and 151.63 ms, respectively. Finally, for a dense network ( $R = 12$ ), ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 require 2178.5 ms, 685.5 ms, and 218.46 ms, respectively, to find five



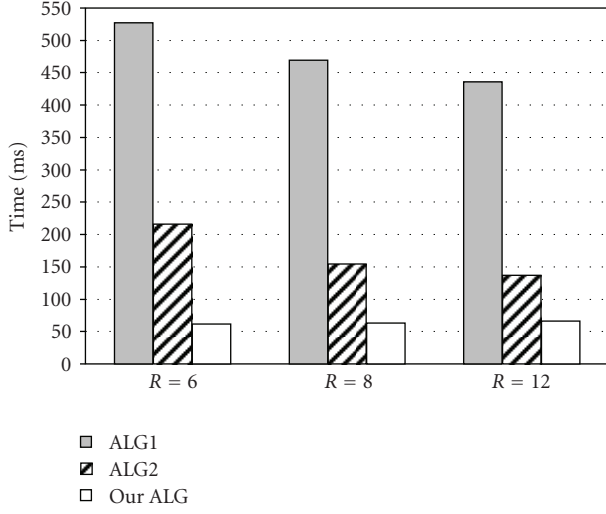


FIGURE 9: Average time to find one proxy with low connectivity (data rate = 250 Kb/s;  $P_{\text{actual}} = 30\%$ ).

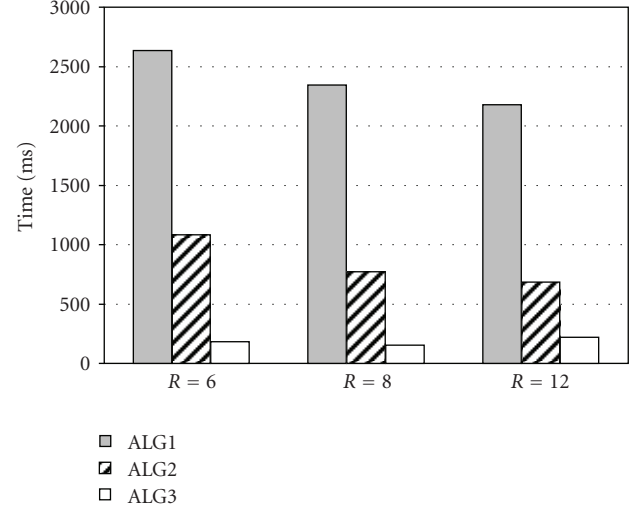


FIGURE 11: Average time to find five proxies with low connectivity ( $P_{\text{actual}} = 30\%$ ; data rate = 250 Kb/s).

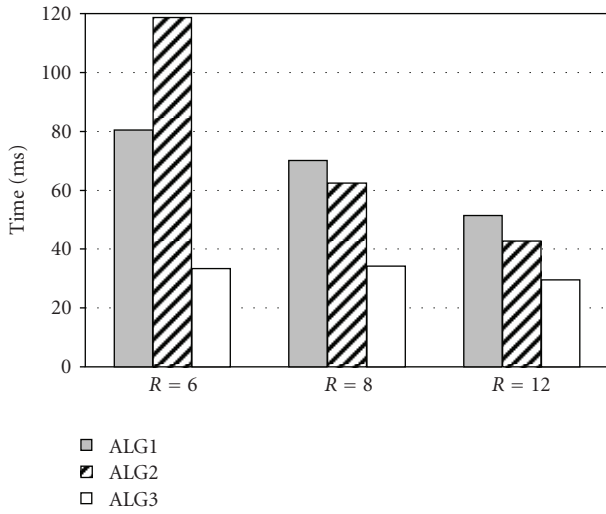


FIGURE 10: Average time to find one proxy with high connectivity (data rate = 250 Kb/s;  $P_{\text{actual}} = 60\%$ ).

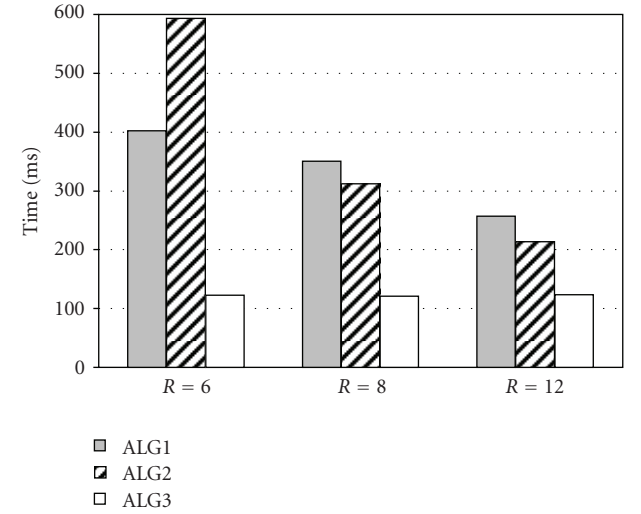


FIGURE 12: Average time to find five proxies with high connectivity ( $P_{\text{actual}} = 60\%$ ; data rate = 250 Kb/s).

proxies. Figure 12 shows another scenario when  $P_{\text{actual}}$  is set to 60% and the data rate is set to 250 Kb/s. It is observed that ALG3 requires less time to find five proxies than do ALG1 and ALG2. For a sparse network ( $R = 6$ ), ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 require 402.08 ms, 593.65 ms, and 122.27 ms, respectively, to find five proxies. For  $R = 8$ , the average times to determine five proxies using ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 are 350.27 ms, 311.95 ms, and 121.11 ms, respectively, while for a dense network ( $R = 12$ ), ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3 require 257.33 ms, 213.91 ms, and 123.41 ms, respectively, to find five proxies. Thus, ALG3 outperforms both ALG1 and ALG2 across the full range of network types.

ALG3 optimises the time necessary to find common nodes to send the new generated key which will be divided according to the number of elected proxies. The time to find those elected proxies using ALG1 and ALG2 is longer

than ALG3. Both ALG1 and ALG2 elect a sensor node as a proxy only if it has a common key ID with both end sensor nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . For a probability of sharing one key space of 30%, each sensor node carries 20 keys from a key pool of 1000 keys. Therefore, each time a request to establish a secure link is sent to a neighbouring node; a total of two times 20 comparisons of keys ID are required to be made to decide whether that node has a common key with both nodes  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . On the top of that, ALG1 and ALG2 do not guarantee that a secure link exists between the elected proxy and  $N_2$ . Furthermore, the length of the path between  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  is not considered in [9]. Our proposed method searches proxies by comparing the sensor node ID resulting in shorter paths and less time to establish a secure link. Consequently, ALG3 is suitable for WSNs nature (see Table 1).

TABLE 1: Comparison of ALG1, ALG2, and ALG3.

ALG1	ALG2	ALG3
	Resolve the path key establishment problem for WSNs	
Suitable for sparse WSNs	Suitable for dense WSNs	Suitable for WSNs
The elected proxies are far away resulting in a higher path length between $N_1$ and $N_2$ .		The path length is shorter than both ALG1 and ALG2.
It takes both ALG1 and ALG2 a longer time to elect a proxy.		ALG3 requires less time to elect a proxy. Therefore,
The time is directly related to power consumption. Therefore, both ALG1 and ALG2 consume more power than ALG3.		it is more suited for WSNs.

## 5. CONCLUSION

This paper addresses the path key establishment problem when two neighbouring sensor nodes with an insecure link require their trusted neighbours to create a secure link. The proposed algorithm outperforms two previously developed algorithms [9]. The results and analyses relate to scenarios for a WSN having high and low connectivities. In particular, ALG3 can locate proxies with less difficulty than those algorithms requiring shorter paths and showing good performance for sparse wireless sensor networks (see Figure 6).

In addition, it has been shown, through simulations, that the proposed algorithm is more efficient in terms of the active time to transmit the necessary information to find one proxy and five proxies (see Table 1). The time to determine a proxy is directly related to power consumption, a longer time necessary to elect a proxy will result in an extra power to be consumed. Therefore the proposed algorithm is also power-efficient. This demonstrates that the proposed algorithm is well suited for use in wireless sensors networks.

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